

## Cryptography Overview

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## Cryptography

- ◆ Is
  - A tremendous tool
  - The basis for many security mechanisms
- ◆ Is not
  - The solution to all security problems
  - Reliable unless implemented properly
  - Reliable unless used improperly

## Basic Concepts in Cryptography

- ◆ Encryption scheme:
  - functions to encrypt, decrypt data
  - key generation algorithm
- ◆ Secret vs. public key
  - Public key: publishing *key* does not reveal  $key^{-1}$
  - Secret key: more efficient; can have  $key = key^{-1}$
- ◆ Hash function
  - Map input to short hash; ideally, no collisions
- ◆ Signature scheme
  - Functions to sign data, verify signature

## Five-Minute University



Father Guido Sarducci

- ◆ Everything you could remember, five years after taking CS255 ... ?

## Cryptosystem

- ◆ A cryptosystem consists of five parts
    - A set  $P$  of plaintexts
    - A set  $C$  of ciphertexts
    - A set  $K$  of keys
    - A pair of functions
      - $encrypt: K \times P \rightarrow C$
      - $decrypt: K \times C \rightarrow P$
- such that for every key  $k \in K$  and plaintext  $p \in P$   
 $decrypt(k, encrypt(k, p)) = p$

OK defn to start with, but doesn't include key generation or prob encryption.

## Primitive example: shift cipher



- ◆ Shift letters using mod 26 arithmetic
  - Set  $P$  of plaintexts  $\{a, b, c, \dots, x, y, z\}$
  - Set  $C$  of ciphertexts  $\{a, b, c, \dots, x, y, z\}$
  - Set  $K$  of keys  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, 25\}$
  - Encryption and decryption functions
    - $encrypt(key, letter) = letter + key \pmod{26}$
    - $decrypt(key, letter) = letter - key \pmod{26}$
- ◆ Example
  - $encrypt(3, stanford) = vwdqirug$

ROT-13 is used in newsgroup postings, etc.

## Evaluation of shift cipher

### ◆ Advantages

- Easy to encrypt, decrypt
- Ciphertext does look garbled

### ◆ Disadvantages

- Not very good for long sequences of English words
  - Few keys -- only 26 possibilities
  - Regular pattern
    - $\text{encrypt}(\text{key}, x)$  is same for all occurrences of letter  $x$
    - can use letter-frequency tables, etc



## Letter frequency in English

### ◆ Five frequency groups [Beker and Piper]

E has probability 0.12  
TAOINSHR have probability 0.06 - 0.09  
DL have probability ~ 0.04  
CUMWFGYPB have probability 0.015 - 0.028  
VKJXQZ have probability < 0.01

Possible to break letter-to-letter substitution ciphers.

- 1400: Arabs did careful analysis of words in Koran
- 1500: realized that letter-frequency could break substitution ciphers

## One-time pad

### ◆ Secret-key encryption scheme (symmetric)

- Encrypt plaintext by xor with sequence of bits
- Decrypt ciphertext by xor with same bit sequence

### ◆ Scheme for pad of length $n$

- Set  $P$  of plaintexts: all  $n$ -bit sequences
- Set  $C$  of ciphertexts: all  $n$ -bit sequences
- Set  $K$  of keys: all  $n$ -bit sequences
- Encryption and decryption functions

$\text{encrypt}(\text{key}, \text{text}) = \text{key} \oplus \text{text}$  (bit-by-bit)  
 $\text{decrypt}(\text{key}, \text{text}) = \text{key} \oplus \text{text}$  (bit-by-bit)

## Evaluation of one-time pad

### ◆ Advantages

- Easy to compute encrypt, decrypt from key, text
- As hard to break as possible
  - This is an information-theoretically secure cipher
  - Given ciphertext, all possible plaintexts are equally likely, assuming that key is chosen randomly

### ◆ Disadvantage

- Key is as long as the plaintext
  - How does sender get key to receiver securely?

Idea for stream cipher: use pseudo-random generators for key...

## What is a "secure" cryptosystem?

### ◆ Idea

- If enemy intercepts ciphertext, cannot recover plaintext

### ◆ Issues in making this precise

- What else might your enemy know?
  - The kind of encryption function you are using
  - Some plaintext-ciphertext pairs from last year
  - Some information about how you choose keys
- What do we mean by "cannot recover plaintext" ?
  - Ciphertext contains no information about plaintext
  - No efficient computation could make a reasonable guess

## In practice ...

### ◆ Information-theoretic security is possible

- Shift cipher, one-time pad are info-secure for short message

### ◆ But not practical

- Long keys needed for good security
- No public-key system

### ◆ Therefore

- Cryptosystems in use are either
  - Just found to be hard to crack, or
  - Based on computational notion of security

## Example cryptosystems

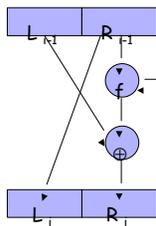
- ◆ Feistel constructions
  - Iterate a “scrambling function”
  - Example: DES, ...
  - AES (Rijndael) is also block cipher, but different
- ◆ Complexity-based cryptography
  - Multiplication, exponentiation are “one-way” fctns
  - Examples: RSA, El Gamal, elliptic curve systems, ...

## Feistel networks

- ◆ Many block algorithms are *Feistel networks*
  - Examples
    - DES, Lucifer, FREAL, Khufu, Khafre, LOKI, GOST, CAST, Blowfish, ...
  - Feistel network is a standard form for
    - Iterating a function  $f$  on parts of a message
    - Producing invertible transformation
- ◆ AES (Rijndael) is related
  - also a block cipher with repeated rounds
  - not a Feistel network

## Feistel network: One Round

Divide  $n$ -bit input in half and repeat



- ◆ Scheme requires
  - Function  $f(R_{i-1}, K_i)$
  - Computation for  $K_i$ 
    - e.g., permutation of key  $K$
- ◆ Advantage
  - Systematic calculation
    - Easy if  $f$  is table, etc.
  - Invertible if  $K_i$  known
    - Get  $R_{i-1}$  from  $L_i$
    - Compute  $f(R_{i-1}, K_i)$
    - Compute  $L_{i-1}$  by  $\oplus$

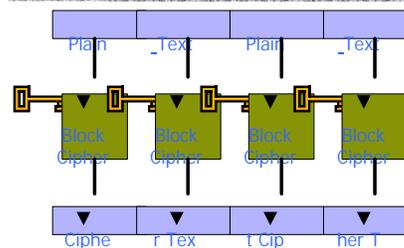
## Data Encryption Standard

- ◆ Developed at IBM, widely used
- ◆ Feistel structure
  - Permute input bits
  - Repeat application of a *S-box* function
  - Apply inverse permutation to produce output
- ◆ Appears to work well in practice
  - Efficient to encrypt, decrypt
  - Not provably secure
- ◆ Improvements
  - Triple DES, AES (Rijndael)

## DES modes

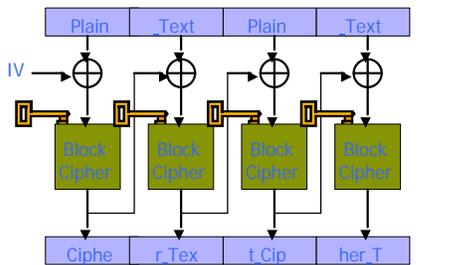
- ◆ ECB – Electronic Code Book mode
  - Divide plaintext into blocks
  - Encrypt each block independently, with same key
- ◆ CBC – Cipher Block Chaining
  - XOR each block with encryption of previous block
  - Use initialization vector IV for first block
- ◆ OFB – Output Feedback Mode
  - Iterate encryption of IV to produce stream cipher
- ◆ CFB – Cipher Feedback Mode
  - Output block  $y_i = \text{input } x_i + \text{encryp}_K(y_{i-1})$

## Electronic Code Book (ECB)



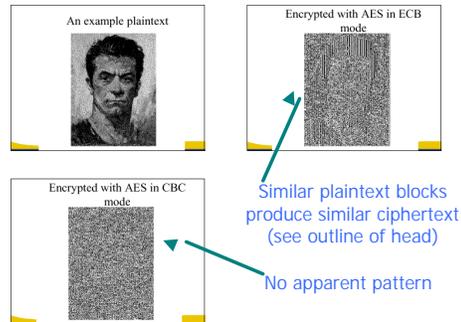
Problem: Identical blocks encrypted identically  
No integrity check

## Cipher Block Chaining (CBC)



Advantages: Identical blocks encrypted differently  
Last ciphertext block depends on entire input

## Comparison (for AES, by Bart Preneel)



## RC4 stream cipher – “Ron’s Code”

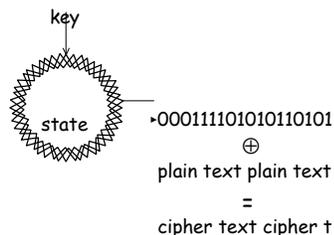
- ◆ Design goals (Ron Rivest, 1987):
  - speed
  - support of 8-bit architecture
  - simplicity (to circumvent export regulations)
- ◆ Widely used
  - SSL/TLS
  - Windows, Lotus Notes, Oracle, etc.
  - Cellular Digital Packet Data
  - OpenBSD pseudo-random number generator

## RSA Trade Secret

- ◆ History
  - 1994 – leaked to cypherpunks mailing list
  - 1995 – first weakness (USENET post)
  - 1996 – appeared in Applied Crypto as “alleged RC4”
  - 1997 – first published analysis

Weakness is predictability of first bits; best to discard them

## Encryption/Decryption



## Security

- ◆ Goal: indistinguishable from random sequence
  - given part of the output stream, it is impossible to distinguish it from a random string
- ◆ Problems
  - Second byte [MS01]
    - Second byte of RC4 is 0 with twice expected probability
  - Related key attack [FMS01]
    - Bad to use many related keys (see WEP 802.11b)
- ◆ Recommendation
  - Discard the first 256 bytes of RC4 output [RSA, MS]

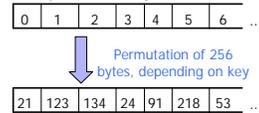
## Complete Algorithm (all arithmetic mod 256)

```

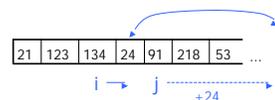
for i := 0 to 255  S[i] := i
j := 0
for i := 0 to 255
  j := j + S[i] + key[i]
  swap (S[i], S[j])

i, j := 0
repeat
  i := i + 1
  j := j + S[i]
  swap (S[i], S[j])
output (S[ S[i] + S[j] ])
    
```

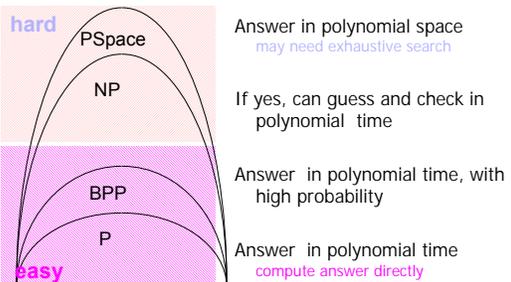
### ◆ Key scheduling



### ◆ Random generator



## Review: Complexity Classes



## One-way functions

- ◆ A function  $f$  is one-way if it is
  - Easy to compute  $f(x)$ , given  $x$
  - Hard to compute  $x$ , given  $f(x)$ , for most  $x$
- ◆ Examples (we believe they are one way)
  - $f(x)$  = divide bits  $x = y@z$  and multiply  $f(x)=y*z$
  - $f(x) = 3^x \bmod p$ , where  $p$  is prime
  - $f(x) = x^3 \bmod pq$ , where  $p, q$  are primes with  $|p|=|q|$

## One-way trapdoor

- ◆ A function  $f$  is *one-way trapdoor* if
  - Easy to compute  $f(x)$ , given  $x$
  - Hard to compute  $x$ , given  $f(x)$ , for most  $x$
  - Extra "trapdoor" information makes it easy to compute  $x$  from  $f(x)$
- ◆ Example (we believe)
  - $f(x) = x^3 \bmod pq$ , where  $p, q$  are primes with  $|p|=|q|$
  - Compute cube root using  $(p-1)*(q-1)$

## Public-key Cryptosystem

- ◆ Trapdoor function to encrypt and decrypt
  - $\text{encrypt}(\text{key}, \text{message})$
  - $\text{decrypt}(\text{key}^{-1}, \text{encrypt}(\text{key}, \text{message})) = \text{message}$
- ◆ Resists attack
  - Cannot compute  $m$  from  $\text{encrypt}(\text{key}, m)$  and  $\text{key}$ , unless you have  $\text{key}^{-1}$

## Example: RSA

- ◆ Arithmetic modulo  $pq$ 
  - Generate secret primes  $p, q$
  - Generate secret numbers  $a, b$  with  $x^{ab} \equiv x \bmod pq$
- ◆ Public encryption key  $\langle n, a \rangle$ 
  - $\text{Encrypt}(\langle n, a \rangle, x) = x^a \bmod n$
- ◆ Private decryption key  $\langle n, b \rangle$ 
  - $\text{Decrypt}(\langle n, b \rangle, y) = y^b \bmod n$
- ◆ Main properties
  - This works
  - Cannot compute  $b$  from  $n, a$ 
    - Apparently, need to factor  $n = pq$

## How RSA works (quick sketch)

- ◆ Let  $p, q$  be two distinct primes and let  $n=p*q$ 
  - Encryption, decryption based on group  $Z_n^*$
  - For  $n=p*q$ , order  $\phi(n) = (p-1)*(q-1)$ 
    - Proof:  $(p-1)*(q-1) = p*q - p - q + 1$
- ◆ Key pair:  $(a, b)$  with  $ab \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$ 
  - $\text{Encrypt}(x) = x^a \pmod{n}$
  - $\text{Decrypt}(y) = y^b \pmod{n}$
  - Since  $ab \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$ , have  $x^{ab} \equiv x \pmod{n}$ 
    - Proof: if  $\gcd(x,n) = 1$ , then by general group theory, otherwise use "Chinese remainder theorem".

## How well does RSA work?

- ◆ Can generate modulus, keys fairly efficiently
  - Efficient rand algorithms for generating primes  $p, q$ 
    - May fail, but with low probability
  - Given primes  $p, q$  easy to compute  $n=p*q$  and  $\phi(n)$
  - Choose  $a$  randomly with  $\gcd(a, \phi(n))=1$
  - Compute  $b = a^{-1} \pmod{\phi(n)}$  by Euclidean algorithm
- ◆ Public key  $n, a$  does not reveal  $b$ 
  - This is not proven, but believed
- ◆ But if  $n$  can be factored, all is lost ...

Public-key crypto is significantly slower than symmetric key crypto

## Message integrity

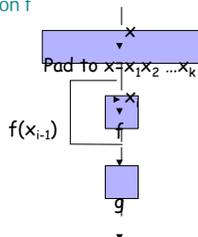
- ◆ For RSA as stated, integrity is a weak point
  - $\text{encrypt}(k*m) = (k*m)^e = k^e * m^e$ 
    - $= \text{encrypt}(k) * \text{encrypt}(m)$
  - This leads to "chosen ciphertext" form of attack
    - If someone will decrypt *new* messages, then can trick them into decrypting  $m$  by asking for  $\text{decrypt}(k^e * m)$
- ◆ Implementations reflect this problem
  - "The PKCS#1 ... RSA encryption is intended primarily to provide confidentiality. ... It is not intended to provide integrity." RSA Lab. Bulletin
- ◆ Additional mechanisms provide integrity

## One-way hash functions

- ◆ Length-reducing function  $h$ 
  - Map arbitrary strings to strings of fixed length
- ◆ One way
  - Given  $y$ , hard to find  $x$  with  $h(x)=y$
  - Given  $m$ , hard to find  $m'$  with  $h(m) = h(m')$
- ◆ Collision resistant
  - Hard to find any distinct  $m, m'$  with  $h(m)=h(m')$

## Iterated hash functions

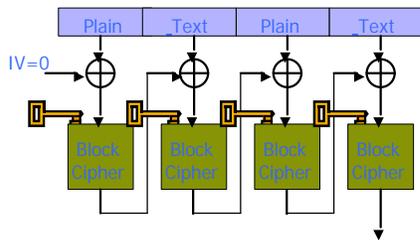
- ◆ Repeat use of block cipher or custom function
  - Pad input to some multiple of block length
  - Iterate a length-reducing function  $f$ 
    - $f: 2^k \rightarrow 2^k$  reduces bits by 2
    - Repeat  $h_0 = \text{some seed}$
    - $h_{i+1} = f(h_i, x_i)$
  - Some final function  $g$  completes calculation



## Applications of one-way hash

- ◆ Password files (one way)
- ◆ Digital signatures (collision resistant)
  - Sign hash of message instead of entire message
- ◆ Data integrity
  - Compute and store hash of some data
  - Check later by recomputing hash and comparing
- ◆ Keyed hash fctns for message authentication
  - MAC – Message Authentication Code

## Basic CBC-MAC



CBC block cipher, discarding all but last output block  
Additional post-processing (e.g. encrypt with second key) can improve output

## Digital Signatures

- ◆ Public-key encryption
  - Alice publishes encryption key
  - Anyone can send encrypted message
  - Only Alice can decrypt messages with this key
- ◆ Digital signature scheme
  - Alice publishes key for verifying signatures
  - Anyone can check a message signed by Alice
  - Only Alice can send signed messages

## Properties of signatures

- ◆ Functions to sign and verify
  - $\text{Sign}(\text{Key}^{-1}, \text{message})$
  - $\text{Verify}(\text{Key}, x, m) = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } x = \text{Sign}(\text{Key}^{-1}, m) \\ \text{false} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- ◆ Resists forgery
  - Cannot compute  $\text{Sign}(\text{Key}^{-1}, m)$  from  $m$  and  $\text{Key}$
  - Resists existential forgery:
    - given  $\text{Key}$ , cannot produce  $\text{Sign}(\text{Key}^{-1}, m)$  for any random or otherwise arbitrary  $m$

## RSA Signature Scheme

- ◆ Publish decryption instead of encryption key
  - Alice publishes decryption key
  - Anyone can decrypt a message encrypted by Alice
  - Only Alice can send encrypt messages
- ◆ In more detail,
  - Alice generates primes  $p, q$  and key pair  $(a, b)$
  - $\text{Sign}(x) = x^a \bmod n$
  - $\text{Verify}(y) = y^b \bmod n$
  - Since  $ab \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$ , have  $x^{ab} \equiv x \pmod n$

## Public-Key Infrastructure (PKI)

- ◆ Anyone can send Bob a secret message
  - Provided they know Bob's public key
- ◆ How do we know a key belongs to Bob?
  - If imposter substitutes another key, read Bob's mail
- ◆ One solution: PKI
  - Trusted root authority (VeriSign, IBM, United Nations)
    - Everyone must know the verification key of root authority
  - Root authority can sign certificates
  - Certificates identify others, including other authorities
  - Leads to certificate chains

## Crypto Summary

- ◆ Encryption scheme:
  - $\text{encrypt}(\text{key}, \text{plaintext})$      $\text{decrypt}(\text{key}^{-1}, \text{ciphertext})$
- ◆ Secret vs. public key
  - Public key: publishing key does not reveal  $\text{key}^{-1}$
  - Secret key: more efficient; can have  $\text{key} = \text{key}^{-1}$
- ◆ Hash function
  - Map long text to short hash; ideally, no collisions
  - Keyed hash (MAC) for message authentication
- ◆ Signature scheme
  - Private  $\text{key}^{-1}$  and public key provide authentication

## Limitations of cryptography

- ◆ Most security problems are not crypto problems
  - This is good
    - Cryptography works!
  - This is bad
    - People make other mistakes; crypto doesn't solve them
- ◆ Examples
  - Deployment and management problems [Anderson]
  - Ineffective use of cryptography
    - Example 802.11b WEP protocol

## Why cryptosystems fail [Anderson]

- ◆ Security failures not publicized
  - Government: top secret
  - Military: top secret
  - Private companies
    - Embarrassment
    - Stock price
    - Liability
- ◆ Paper reports problems in banking industry
  - Anderson hired as consultant representing unhappy customers, 1992 class action suit

## Anderson study of bank ATMs

- ◆ US Federal Reserve regulations
  - Customer not liable unless bank proves fraud
- ◆ UK regulations significantly weaker
  - Banker denial and negligence
  - Teenage girl in Ashton under Lyme
    - Convicted of stealing from her father, forced to plead guilty, later determined to be bank error
  - Sheffield police sergeant
    - Charged with theft and suspended from job; bank error
- ◆ 1992 class action suit

## Sources of ATM Fraud

- ◆ Internal Fraud
  - PINs issued through branches, not post
    - Bank employees know customer's PIN numbers
  - One maintenance engineer modified an ATM
    - Recorded bank account numbers and PINs
  - One bank issues "master" cards to employees
    - Can debit cash from customer accounts
  - Bank with good security removed control to cut cost
    - No prior study of cost/benefit; no actual cost reduction
    - Increase in internal fraud at significant cost
    - Employees did not report losses to management out of fear

## Sources of ATM Fraud

- ◆ External Fraud
  - Full account numbers on ATM receipts
    - Create counterfeit cards
      - Attackers observe customers, record PIN
      - Get account number from discarded receipt
    - One sys: Telephone card treated as previous bank card
      - Apparently programming bug
      - Attackers observe customer, use telephone card
  - Attackers produce fake ATMs that record PIN
  - Postal interception accounts for 30% of UK fraud
    - Nonetheless, banks have poor postal control procedures
  - Many other problems

Test sequence causes ATM to output 10 banknotes

## Sources of ATM Fraud

- ◆ PIN number attacks on lost, stolen cards
  - Bank suggestion of how to write down PIN
    - Use weak code; easy to break
  - Programmer error - all customers issued same PIN
  - Banks store encrypted PIN on file
    - Programmer can find own encrypted PIN, look for other accounts with same encrypted PIN
  - One large bank stores encrypted PIN on mag strip
    - Possible to change account number on strip, leave encrypted PIN, withdraw money from other account

## Additional problems

- ◆ Some problems with encryption products
  - Special hardware expensive; software insecure
  - Banks buy bad solutions when good ones exist
    - Not knowledgeable enough to tell the difference
  - Poor installation and operating procedures
  - Cryptanalysis possible for homegrown crypto

More sophisticated attacks described in paper

## Wider Implications

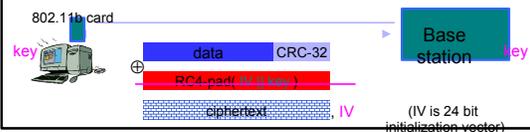
- ◆ Equipment designers and evaluators focus on technical weaknesses
  - Banking systems have some loopholes, but these do not contribute significantly to fraud
- ◆ Attacks were made possible because
  - Banks did not use products properly
  - Basic errors in
    - System design
    - Application programming
    - Administration

## Summary

- ◆ Cryptographic systems suffer from lack of failure information
  - Understand all possible failure modes of system
  - Plan strategy to prevent each failure
  - Careful implementation of each strategy
- ◆ Most security failures due to implementation and management error
  - Program must be carried out by personnel available

## Last mile security: wireless Ethernet

- ◆ Many corporate wireless hubs installed without any privacy or authentication.
  - POP/IMAP passwords easily sniffed off the air.
  - Laptops in parking lot can access internal network.
- ◆ Intended “solution”: use the WEP protocol (802.11b).
  - Provides 40-bit or 128-bit encryption using RC4 ...



## Some mistakes in the design of WEP

- ◆ CRC-32 ⇒ no packet integrity!!
  - CRC-32 is linear
  - Attacker can easily modify packets in transit, e.g. inject `*rm -rf **`
  - Should use MAC for integrity
- ◆ Prepending IV is insufficient.
  - Fluhrer-Mantin-Shamir: RC4 is insecure in prepending IV mode
    - Given 106 packets can get key.
    - Implemented by Stubblefield, AirSnort, WEPcrack, ...
  - Correct construction:
    - $\text{packet-key} = \text{SHA-1}(\text{IV} || \text{key})$
    - use longer IV\_random



## What to do?

- ◆ Regard 802.11b networks as public channels.
  - Use SSH, SSL, IPsec, ...
- ◆ Lesson:
  - Insist on open security reviews for upcoming standards
  - Closed standards don't work: e.g. GSM, CMEA, ...
  - Open review worked well for SSL and IPsec

## Summary

### ◆ Main functions from cryptography

- Public-key encryption, decryption, key generation
- Symmetric encryption
  - Block ciphers, CBC Mode
  - Stream cipher
- Hash functions
  - Cryptographic hash
  - Keyed hash for Message Authentication Code (MAC)
- Digital signatures

### ◆ Be careful

- Many non-intuitive properties; prefer public review
- Need to implement, use carefully